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### Volume II—Aluminum Products and Their Fabrication

**I**N this volume progress of aluminum working such as casting, machining, welding, drawing, stamping etc., which are of some practical interest in the work of aluminum, are treated in detail. The application of aluminum in other fields, such as transportation, metallurgy and chemistry, is also given detailed consideration. Considerable consideration is given to the physical and chemical properties of aluminum, its alloys, and the structure of aluminum alloy systems. Properties of aluminum alloys, superalloys, alloys of aluminum, casting of aluminum and its alloys, working of aluminum, action of cold working on the physical properties of aluminum, heat treatment of aluminum alloys, joining processes, casting and finishing of aluminum, aluminum products and their uses, general considerations on use of aluminum, design of aluminum structures, aluminum in transportation, electrical production of aluminum, aluminum in the electrical industry, aluminum in the home and in the food industries, aluminum in the chemical industries, some metallurgical and other uses of aluminum, aluminum prices, the future of aluminum.



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# AVIATION

THE OLDEST AMERICAN AERONAUTICAL MAGAZINE

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## Compromises

REVIEWING in retrospect the aviation enterprise as presented at Detroit, a shift in controlling forces is manifest. Chronologically, the very earliest expressions of aviation development were primarily selected by the pilot—his judgment the alpha and omega of design influence. Then the engineer came into ascendancy, and aerodynamics and stress analysis took at the control stick of aircraft development. Then the issuance of the financer, and with him his ever-present ally the production man, and the motivating force of aircraft manufacturing progress lay in their methods and policies.

As such in turn handled the controls of airplane development, they left a definite impress of their several influences, and during their successive phases, their various specialized attitudes were predominant in the development of their respective periods. Now, for the first time, a truly composite picture is beginning to emerge. No longer is the airplane an expression of one predominant force of the moment. It is beginning to become a compromise expression of all forces, including the introduction of a hitherto controllable power—the desires of the passenger and of the private owner.

Compromise is beginning to come into its own, as it inevitably must if the industry is to attain its business "miking." The pilot must sacrifice some of his ideas of maneuverability and speed to the greatest comfort and convenience of the passengers; the engineer must sacrifice some of his best theory to practical considerations of ease of manufacture and cost; the production man must not only make the parts at the minimum of cost and maximum of dependability, but he must also be ready to offer suggestions of process changes that will save material and cost; and the financer must moderate his desire for immediate profits to permit the financing of basic research and fundamental technical development.

For this new predominating influence of co-operation the industry is to a great extent indebted to the men and

women outside the industry who are the ultimate users of its products. They more than any other influence have been responsible for the birth of this new age of compromise. They never hesitate to make their feelings known. Their criticisms and reactions as they view the planes at an air show or airport may seem naive to the aeronautical specialist, but rightfully interpreted they are the fountainheads of successful aircraft development.

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## Pilots and Pink Beans

SINCE the safety of airline operations depends more directly upon the pilot than any other one factor, everyone agrees that the pilot should be in perfect condition while flying, and that he should be given every assistance in helping that way.

All responsible aircraft operators take every precaution when selecting pilots to obtain capable and experienced men of proven judgment and reliability. Once selected, they are subjected to semi-annual physical tests as required by the Department of Commerce, Aeronautics Branch. Often they are tested each month by company physicians. There is no other direct check upon their physical condition. In their work they are given such executive supervision as normal operating procedures readily permit, but it is unfortunately true that companies sometimes find they have made a mistake in hiring a pilot only after he has made a serious, perhaps a fatal, blunder.

Under the same conditions, he might not have made the blunder the day before. He might not repeat it tomorrow. Transport pilots are subject to all of the troubles which beset other individuals. Pilots may be taken sick, may be sick and perhaps not realize how seriously, may be suffering mental depression due to family troubles or financial worries, may have been up

all night with a sick baby, may even be recovering from the effects of a spree at the time when they report for active duty. Even the most reliable men derive from normal condition occasionally, and may rely themselves ready for duty when the effects of such temporary conditions have left them temporarily below par. Although mental, physical, and nervous conditions may all be checked against an individual's normal state, appropriate tests being given within the normal routine of industrial trial psychology, there is at the present time no company which makes an official check of personal condition just before each duty period and the pilots themselves rarely know from day to day just how their condition may check with normal. Men who can judge themselves fairly are scarce, especially when pride stands in the way of admitting that they do not feel up to their jobs.

The measurement of such simple quantities as the number of pink lines that a man can pick up one at a time and place in a container within a specified period, the number of times in a given period that he can pick a needle through a hole in a metal plate, the speed with which he can draw straight lines between dots on a sheet of paper, and other kindred tests, if checked against standard normal performances, would make it possible to keep closer tabs upon the day-to-day fitness of the flying personnel. Such devices have the merit of requiring no high order of specialized professional skill for their application, but a draft must be made upon the accumulated wisdom of the experimental psychologists to tell us what kind of apparatus to use and where to begin on behalf of the industry, we cordially invite their attention to our pilot maintenance problem.

Here is a definite step which can be taken to add to our margin of safety in airtight operation. If juggling beans can add to safety, let's put the beans to work.

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### "To See Ourselves as Others See Us"

MUCH has been said concerning the necessity of "throwing up" aviation for the public, but results show themselves but slowly. Even though the air line must pour down expenses in an effort to bring operating costs more nearly into balance with current revenue, there is no excuse for some of the things that are allowed to take place.

One Sunday a few weeks ago, a group of passengers leaving Chicago were forced to wait half an hour after the scheduled time of departure before a plane was ready for them. They waited, while the jet-engine craft in which they were supposed to depart stood in front of the passenger station not a hundred feet away and mechanics worked methodically as one of the wing engines. For some reason, the engine would not "start up." Each time that the throttle was advanced, the

engine backfired and spit. The mechanics even changed cylinders, but to no avail.

There was a large crowd at the airport as a usual on a Sunday, and every time that the engine backfired the crowd became visibly more alarmed. Some of the spectators remarked that it was a crime to allow passengers to fly in a plane like that. Their friends added their laudis sagely. The air line officials of course had no intention of attempting to take-off until the engine could be made to behave properly. But how should the public know?

When it became apparent that the trouble was not to be embodied, another plane was brought out and warmed up and the passengers prepared to embark. The engines of the second plane operated perfectly, yet many of the passengers, knowing little or nothing of aviation, flunked into the cabin with divided trepidation. It would be interesting to know how many of them would have cancelled their passages if grateful opportunity had presented itself. Masses of passengers of engine failure was unquestionably in their minds, as well as in those of the spectators on the ground. Had they not seen the type of equipment that the line was attempting to operate?

It may be that the personnel was out to the line. It may be that it was a physical impossibility for the mechanics to get the first plane in readiness before the scheduled time for its departure. Neither of those things was a sufficient excuse for effecting repairs in front of a holiday crowd of spectators, all of whom had the right to be regarded as potential passengers.

The officials of many leading companies have learned, a long time since, that it is a mistake to make minor adjustments on a plane in view of the public. The planes are warmed up and inspected in hangars well removed from the passenger station. If any repairs and adjustments are necessary, they are made inside the hangar. It is only when a plane is ready in every respect that it is brought out before the public gaze.

The reason for this, the officials who have learned the lesson will tell you, is that the holder of an airplane will clear the station of passengers more quickly than would a cry of "Fire." Other air line operators, who have not adopted such stringent rules for the convenience of tinkering, will do well to meditate on that statement.

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### "Blind" or "Instrument" Flying?

MODERN MINDS stretch much greater importance to nomenclature than did Shakespeare, and feel that the query "What's in a name?" is not to be lightly answered. The Boeing Company, for example, insists that "blind" flying is a misnomer when applied to flying by instruments, and have abandoned the use of

the term. If a pilot feels the helplessness that the idea of Maddox conveys to the person of normal vision, they say, he had better desist forthwith. "Instrument" flying is, however, receiving an increasing amount of attention, students in the schools being trained to fly in hooded cockpits for long distances and over triangular or other irregular courses. The same practice has of course been extensively adopted elsewhere, especially by transport lines seeking to put a super-finish on the qualification of their own personnel.

Pilots who have not been trained to depend on instruments are prone to become panicky after a few minutes without seeing their course. Those with only a limited experience find the nervous strain of long-outlined instrument flying terrific. There are well trained and reliable pilots of the older generation who still insist that no one can fly safely by instruments for more than five or ten minutes without losing his nerve. Yet young students are learning to fly prolonged and irregular courses entirely by instruments in hooded cockpits, and negotiating with remarkable accuracy.

Colonel Lindbergh is reported to have said that one of the hardest things about his New York to Paris flight was to believe that the instruments were right when his personal feeling was that they must be wrong. Other pilots invariably have told the same story. Navigators of long flight tell of the tendency of even the most experienced pilots of the older school to seek visibility, even at dangerously low altitudes, rather than fly through fog or clouds for even a few minutes. And there is little doubt that some of the regrettable transport accidents might have been avoided had the pilots of the planes been thoroughly trained in flying by instrumental guidance alone.

Dependence on instruments, however, places an ever-increasing responsibility on both the instrument manufacturers and on those who select the equipment. On the former to design and build instruments of the greatest accuracy and reliability. On the latter to select the best instruments obtainable. Only reliable products by makers with a reputation to sustain should be considered, and if the price is somewhat higher than for some alternative product it is a cheap form of insurance. Safety is at stake in the development and use of the most efficient, most reliable, and standard aerial navigating equipment available.

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### Motor Gliders

THE AIRPLANE began as a glider. The Wrights were first interested in aviation through the gliding experiments of Lilienthal. With the glider they initiated their own work. Octave Chanute and A. M. Herring in America, Ernest Archdeacon and the Volant

in France, others there and elsewhere inaugurated their aerial activities with motorless craft. Now after twenty-six years of powered flying we have gone full circle. The glider is again on a focal point of our interest.

As an instrument of sport, the glider has much to commend it. As a finishing touch upon the training of pilots, it serves a useful purpose. As a vehicle of research upon aerodynamics, upon control and stability, and especially upon the structure of the atmosphere, it is, as German experience has proved, of immense value, but let it be explained that in all these capacities it functions as a glider. When a power plant is added it becomes something else.

The term "motor glider" is fairly self-contradictory. A glider is, by definition, an aircraft without a motor. The German phrase "glider with motor assistance" is more logical, but even more dangerously misleading in its implication. It suggests the idea of an outboard engine applied as an afterthought, an idea which recent motor-launching experience makes American opinion all too ready to grasp.

A certain number of true gliders have been equipped with auxiliary engines for certain definite purposes, especially for taking soaring machines to a substantial altitude to start experiments in the vertical column of the air at those levels. They have not been used to fly out, judged by their very limited use in Germany where they originated and by their rather bad record of accident, they have not been particularly safe. A certain number of machines, too, have been developed with the glider as a background, the Klemm being the best known example with a long record, but they stand on quite a different footing. There has been nothing to suggest that a glider with an engine added as an auxiliary is in any sense a satisfactory airplane.

The fundamental conditions are different. In a glider, weight is of very secondary importance. If structural weight is increased, it can be provided for by further increase in the span. Maximum speed of gliding depends on the sole aerodynamic objective. In an airplane which is to fly with low power, low gross weight is virtually as important as lift/drag ratio.

For the light, low-powered airplane there is certainly a place, but it should stand on its own feet, or rise on its own wings, not on an arbitrary extrapolation of the glider's structure. Some of the most successful of really light planes, like the De Havilland SS of six years ago, have been quite independent of any glider ancestry. The light plane follows essentially the same rules of design as the F-32 or the Poiré.

Storing flight drives off the encouragement that the American aircraft industry and aeronautical scientists can give it. So does the airplane of low power, light loading, and low cost. But the idea that they can be merged, except for use with great discretion and in the hands of an expert, it is to be shunned, at least until we are presented with some technical innovation not at the moment visible.





does not generally form with the wind greater than 5 m.p.h. On the other hand, if the air is extremely cold precipitation is in the form of dew. A slight twist in the air is necessary to bring a large volume of air in contact with the ground slowly enough to permit cooling and rapidly enough to prevent complete precipitation to the ground. In the second type, subsiding fogs, occurs when a warm, humid body of air drifts over a cold surface or, more rarely, comes in contact with a cold body of air. Such fogs occur off Newfoundland and the New England Coast where the air from over the Gulf Stream drifts over the Labrador Current, and along the Pacific Coast where the warm Humboldt air from off the coast drifts over the cold water which walls up off the coast.

The third type, Maritime fogs, results from conditions which are a combination of those for the formation of the first or second type. Maritime fogs are prevalent over Continental Europe but rare in North America.

The formation of fog is also dependent upon condensation nuclei. The pioneer work of C. T. R. Wilson (Phil Trans of Roy Soc of London, A, 1887, vol. 209, p. 263, vol. 202, p. 403) showed that humid pure air may have a vapor pressure eight times that of saturated vapor pressure before condensation occurs. When dust, dirt, ions, hygroscopic particles are present, condensation begins at a much lower degree of saturation. The particular degree of supersaturation necessary depends upon the type of condensation nuclei. In his article Wilson points out that recent observations indicate that condensation in fogs and clouds takes place under conditions of relatively low supersaturation, much lower than formerly assumed. The most effective nuclei of condensation are hygroscopic particles, such as magnesium chloride ( $MgCl_2$ ) and sulphuric anhydride ( $SO_3$ ). On particles of these materials condensation occurs when saturation is only slightly above 100 per cent. The nuclei of fogs occurring along sea coasts are almost exclusively  $MgCl_2$ . It is well known that radiation fogs are more dense around cities and industrial centers than in the open country. This is due to great numbers of hygroscopic nuclei poured into the atmosphere in the products of combustion.

The black fog or haze which frequently obscures certain localities (such as the Chicago Airport) is a type of radiation fog in which there is an unusually large number of condensation nuclei. The fog particles are consequently numerous and small, and mixed with smoke and dust particles of which 10% or less water is contained. The fogs formed in the open country have larger particles. Since there are less condensation nuclei present in the air, each nucleus has available a greater volume of humid air from which to condense water vapor in proportion to a locality where the condensation nuclei are numerous. Both the small particle "black" fogs and the large particle "white" fogs are a mixture

of radiation and must be considered in the experiments with artificial fogs.

THE fog chamber is finally developed and used in the form described in a later section is shown in Fig. 1. C is a piece of stainless steel steam pipe 6 in. in diameter and 30 in. long. It is closed at each end by a piece of plate glass. (For most of the tests pyrex glass was used, as this has a very uniform high transmission from 0.5 microns in the ultra violet to 2.7 microns in the infra-red.) The pipe is fitted on the inside with a helical coil of iron copper tubing. Through this coil hot or cold water can be circulated and by this means the temperature of the air in the pipe quickly changed. There are connections to an air pressure line and a vacuum tank, so that the pressure can be increased or decreased. From a water tank, W, to the coil, pipe, C, a water pump, P, circulates the water in the tank, W, is heated by an electric heating unit. The warm humid air and steam above the water may be circulated through the pipe or fog chamber by a small electric fan hung on the inside of the cover of the water tank.

Another electric fan, still smaller, is located inside the fog chamber at one end. When this fan is running, a turbulence in the air in the pipe is produced similar to that in a natural fog. Valves, V/P, at each end of the 3-in. circulating pipe may be closed, thus shutting off the fog chamber from the water tank. The temperature of the air within pipe is indicated by three thermocouples, one at either end and one at the middle. A fourth thermocouple, soldered to the outside of the visible wall of the fog chamber, gives the temperature of the walls. A fifth thermocouple in the water tank indicates the temperature of the water.

Special preparations were taken to screen the fog chamber from light related by the inside walls of the fog chamber. In the first place, the reflecting power of the inside walls was made very low. After the equipment was assembled, the interior was sprayed with optical black lacquer. While this was still sticky, dust from burning cigarette pipes was deposited on it. This produced a matt black surface of very small coefficient of reflection. In the second place, bulk rings were built into the temperature control unit, and so located as to cut off any light reflected from the walls.

Condensation nuclei were introduced into the fog chamber by a smoke reproducer, S. Tobacco was burned in this reproducer. In the later tests magnesium chloride was mixed with the tobacco. Particles of magnesium chloride are very effective as condensation nuclei. Fogs produced with its aid are of much lower duration.

At the middle section of the fog chamber are three glass windows 1 in. in diameter. Two of these are at opposite ends of a diameter and the third at an angle of 30 deg. to the line of the other two. A beam of light from a

small projector may be directed through the two windows opposite each other. Through the third window a microscope of low magnifying power is directed so the fog particles illuminated by the light beam. Thus it is possible to make a qualitative observation on the number and size of the fog particles. Exact measurements of the size of these fog particles are not possible because of their rapid movement.

Fig. 2 is a photograph of the assembled equipment. C is the fog chamber proper, V/P, a control panel on which are located gauges for measuring pressure and temperature, switches for controlling the electric circuits, and valves for control of air pressure and the circulating water. P is a vacuum tank. On the wall shell, G, are the galvanometer sockets. The galvanometers are on brackets fastened to the wall directly above the shell. On the wall at the observing end of the fog chamber are placed the photo-electric cells and thermo element for measuring the light intensity.

THREE methods were used for production of fog. Two of these were based on the principles underlying the formation of radiation fogs. The other was based on hygroscopic fogs. The first was in each of the three methods was to circulate warm moist air from the hot water tank through the fog chamber. Condensation on the walls showed the air was saturated. Then the temperature of the air was made one or two degrees higher than that of the pipe walls, thus insuring a high humidity.

In the formation of small particle fog, a large number of condensation nuclei from burning tobacco were introduced. The smoke streamer was opened until the issuing light of 75000 beam candle power was almost obscured. The air pressure was then adjusted to about 1.05 atmospheres. This was for the purpose of increasing the air temperature and the amount of water vapor. To produce a uniform distribution of smoke particles the air was circulated for a few seconds. By this time the light was completely obscured. In observing the particles through the microscope at the side window, an increase in size was easily distinguished. This growth caused the increase in fog density after the introduction of smoke. The duration of this type of fog was about an hour during which time measurements on the transmission at various colors were made.

To produce large particle fog, magnesium chloride was mixed with the tobacco. Just enough smoke was introduced to give the light a distinct red color. The air pressure was increased to 1.15 atmospheres. The valves V/P between the water tank and the fog chamber were closed.

The small fan in the fog chamber was started. This was kept on constant throughout the duration of the fog. In about two minutes, the air was suddenly exposed to normal pressure. An adiabatic cooling and a supersaturation followed. The result was an accelerated condensation. At first the fog was very dense, absorbing completely the visible light and a very high percentage of the infrared. The fog was also rather unstable at first. In two or three minutes it reached a fairly steady condition and cleared out very slowly. Such a fog lasted between two and three hours. The large particle fogs were very much alike. In three series of observations, the average difference between readings were less than 10 per cent.

The particles in the second type are larger because the condensation nuclei are: (1) less numerous, making

Table 1—Small Particle Fog

	Per Cent Water moisture Through 10 in. of Fog	Coef. of Absorption	Duration in Fog to Reduce Intensity to 10% of Initial
Color			
Dark Red	11	4.11	100%
Red	11	1.12	100%
Red-Yellow	11	1.76	100%
Yellow	12.5	1.05	100%
Green	14.5	1.01	121%
Blue	14.5	1.02	111%
Dark Red	11	1.54	100%
Red	11.5	1.03	100%
Red-Yellow	12	1.04	100%
Yellow	13	1.04	100%
Green	14	1.04	100%
Blue	14.5	1.04	100%
Dark Red	11	1.14	100%
Dark Red	11	1.03	100%
Red	11	1.03	100%
Yellow	11.5	1.03	100%
Green	12	1.03	100%
Blue	12.5	1.03	100%
Dark Red	11	1.02	100%
Red	11	1.02	100%
Red-Yellow	11.5	1.02	100%
Yellow	12	1.02	100%
Green	12.5	1.02	100%
Blue	13	1.02	100%
Dark Red	11	1.06	100%
Red	11	1.06	100%
Red-Yellow	11.5	1.06	100%
Yellow	12	1.06	100%
Green	12.5	1.06	100%
Blue	13	1.06	100%

possible more moisture per particle. (2) more hygroscopic due to the  $MgCl_2$ . (3) the air through exposure to supersaturation, insuring greater condensation. In the formation of both types of fog, condensation nuclei were introduced into a saturated atmosphere. In radiation fogs of nature the nuclei are present in the air before atmospheric changes occur, producing stratiform or cumulus clouds. The artificial production of fog resembles the natural in that condensation nuclei are brought into contact with air of high moisture content. In the formation of natural fogs, nuclei are present before a high humidity is brought about, in stratiform fogs, the nuclei are introduced into an atmosphere already saturated.

PRODUCTION of fog by an advection method was tried. As in the case of other types, condensation nuclei must be present. Warm moist air from the water tank was circulated through the fog chamber, thus bringing a body of humid air of high temperature into a region of lower temperature. At first a fog of large particles was formed. However, it did not last. By continuous circulation the fog particles were swept on the walls of the pipe, soon clearing the air of most nuclei. Consequently this method was not used for any of the measurements of light transmission.

Color	Water/Glass/Unit	Pipes	Light Detector
Dark Red	1 lb. to 1 lb.	Cooling W.P. + Metal Electrodes	Thermocouples
Dark Red (dark red cell)	2 lbs. to 1 lb.	Water W.P.	Photo-electric cell, 100, 100, 100
Red	1 lb. to 1 lb.	Cooling W.P. + Metal Electrodes	Photo-electric cell, 100, 100, 100
Red-Yellow	1 lb. to 1 lb.	Cooling W.P. + Metal Electrodes	Photo-electric cell, 100, 100, 100
Yellow	1 lb. to 1 lb.	Cooling W.P. + Metal Electrodes	Photo-electric cell, 100, 100, 100
Green	1 lb. to 1 lb.	Cooling W.P. + Metal Electrodes	Photo-electric cell, 100, 100, 100
Blue	1 lb. to 1 lb.	Cooling W.P. + Metal Electrodes	Photo-electric cell, 100, 100, 100

THE SOURCE OF LIGHT was a 200-watt, 6-cv. Mazda C incandescent lamp bulb, type G-30, blower type C-8. This was operated at 2.5 volts, 26 amperes, the voltage being low enough to insure constancy in the characteristics of the lamp. The temperature, as measured with an optical pyrometer, was 2,900 deg. K. The filament of the lamp was very concentrated and well adapted for producing a narrow beam. By means of a carefully selected system of condensing lenses a nearly parallel beam of light was projected through the fog chamber. The illumination produced in the observing cell was 170 ft-candles, corresponding to a beam candle power of 70,000.

The intensity of the light emerging from the fog chamber was measured by photo-electric cells for the visible range and also for the near infra-red. The infra-red radiation of longer wave-lengths was measured by a thermo-electric element. Each photo-electric cell was connected to a galvanometer which indicated the magnitude of the photo-electric current. Likewise, the thermo-electric element was connected to a galvanometer. The current through this was proportional to infrared

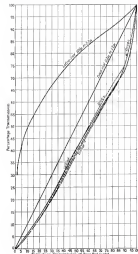


FIG. 1

radiation falling on the thermo-element. Using sheets with the galvanometers made possible a range of current measurement of 1 to 1,800. This simply means that it is possible to detect and measure light flux coming through a fog reduced by the fog to 1/1,800 of the original magnitude.

To select the photo-electric cells best adapted to this work the following tests were made:

- (1) Determination of the relation of the photo-electric current to the light flux incident upon the cell.
- (2) Determination of the relation of the photo-electric current to the color (or wave length) of radiation of equal intensity incident upon the cell.

The tests showed that a voltage, not too high, applied to the cell inside the photo-electric current proportional to the light flux. This is in accordance with the results published by Köhler (Kolloid J.O.S.A. and R.S.I. 19, 125, Sept., 1929) (General Electric Research Laboratory) subsequent to the completion of this work.

To determine the effect of color on the photo-electric current, spectral sensitivity curves were taken for five distinct types of cells out of a total of thirteen cells. These covered a range from 0.25 microns to 1.7 microns. (Ultra-violet light has wave lengths shorter than 0.4 microns; visible light extends from 0.4 microns to 0.7 microns, and infra-red radiation have wave-lengths longer than 0.7 microns.) A discovery was made concerning photo-electric cells which was discouraging at first, but later was put to good use, viz., that individual cells of the same type differ as greatly from each other as cells of different types. Advantage was taken of this point similarities among the ranges of spectral sensitivity to assign combinations of color filters and cells for the purpose of obtaining relatively narrow bands of color.

The photo-electric cells were of the vacuum tube type. Cell No. 3 had an unusual sensitivity in the near infra-red, extending to 1.2μ. The cut-off of cell No. 1 was at 0.8μ. This was used to establish the long wave-length limit of the red band, 0.60μ to 0.80μ. The thermo-element was a Sappi single element vacuum type. It gives of more rapid in its responses and held its zero more consistently than multiple junction types of thermoelectric type.

By means of a suitable system of prisms and lenses, it was possible to direct the light emerging from the fog chamber upon three photo-electric cells simultaneously or upon two photo-electric cells and a thermo-element simultaneously. This means made possible simultaneous observations of the effects of fog in three bands of color.

Two bands of radiation in the infra-red and four in the visible part of the spectrum were used. Considerable study of filters prevented the selection of these color bands. The bands were chosen that very little overlapping occurred or, in other words, the color bands used represented distinct and separate regions of radiation.

One band, deep red or near infra-red, was used as a standard for the comparison of other colors. The bands of colors and the wave-length limits and the light detecting instruments are given in Table I.

ALREADY PRINTED OUT, the photo-electric current was proportional to the light flux on the cell. Hence in order to find the percentage transmission of a certain color of light through the fog, it was only necessary to find the ratio between the photo-electric current with fog and the photo-electric current with no fog.

In taking a series of readings two observers were used,

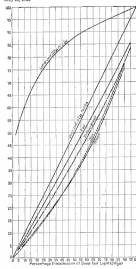


FIG. 4

one for each galvanometer. Readings were taken simultaneously for the deep red, infra-red and red. Then the filter in front of one cell was changed and readings were taken this time for the deep red and yellow, then the deep red and green and finally the deep red and blue. This made possible the use of the deep red transmission as a reference standard for the transmission of other colors.

The beginning of a series of readings was characterized by a complete absorption of the visible colors, however, considerable infra-red was always transmitted.

As the fog cleared, the galvanometers measured the transmission of the deep-red and other colors showed deflections. These deflections slowly increased, indicating increasing transmissions of the respective colors. Accurate readings were made possible by the slowness of the changes in the fogs.

THE TRANSMISSIONS for each color were plotted against the transmission of the deep red, giving a graphical representation of the relative transmissions for any one density of fog, also illustrating the respective

progressive changes in transmission during changes in the density of fogs.

Fig. 4 gives the graphs for the first type of fog ("small particle fog"). These were plotted from the readings taken from four sets of readings. Fig. 3 shows the graphs for the second type of fog ("large particle fog") plotted from the averages of three sets of readings.

The results of these observations are also shown in Table II. The data from this table was obtained from Figures 3 and 4 by use of the equation

$$I = I_0 e^{-kx}$$

in which

- $I_0$  = intensity of light flux at the source
- $I$  = intensity of light flux at the observing cell
- $k$  = coefficient of absorption
- $x$  = distance (length of fog chamber)
- $e$  = 2.708

This is a well known equation for the attenuation of radiation through an absorbing medium. For purposes of comparison, it is more convenient to put this in the form

$$\frac{I}{I_0} = e^{-kx}$$

In this latter form the ratio  $\frac{I}{I_0}$  is the transmission, the values of which can be read from the curves.

The curves show that in the "small particle fog" some variation in transmission for the different colors, the deep red light penetrating the fog the most, while the green and the blue penetrated the least. The difference is more pronounced for the lighter fogs. In the "large particle fog" there is very little difference in the transmission of different colors for visible light.

For the dense fogs, red proved to be the best, and for thinner fogs, blue. Yellow was the poorest for all densities of fog. However, the greatest difference between the red and yellow in transmission was only 4 per cent and the greatest difference between the blue and yellow was but 5 per cent. It is important to notice the very marked increase in transmission as the longer wave lengths of infra-red radiation were reached. For example, when the fog was so dense that only 2 per cent of the visible colors was transmitted, the transmission of the deep red (0.7μ to 1.2μ) was 4 per cent, while the transmission of the infra-red, 1.06μ to 2.7μ, was 40 per cent. For all densities of fog the penetrating ability of this infra-red band was much greater than that of any other band measured, but its penetration was relatively much greater in the densest fogs, and greater for the small particle fog than for the large particle fog.

Table II gives some values for the coefficients of absorption and the distances required to reduce the intensity of the light to 1/1,000 (0.1 per cent) of its magnitude at the source. These distances give some idea of the densities of the fogs used compared with natural fog. For illustration, take a small particle fog which reduces the intensity of the deep red light to 75 per cent of its initial value in the 20-ft. fog chamber. A distance of 480 ft. of the same fog would reduce this color to 0.1 per cent, 345 ft. would reduce the lighter red to 0.1 per cent, 280 ft. the yellow, 234 ft. the green, and 362 ft. the blue. For the infra-red (1.03μ to 2.7μ) it would require 2,260 ft. of fog to reduce the radiation to 0.1 per cent.

The data in Table II agree in general with the results

obtained by Grunath and Hubbert (Physical Review 34, 190-194, July, 1935) of the Naval Research Laboratory in their measurements on natural logs. They found that the distance necessary to reduce red light of wavelength 0.634 to 0.1 per cent of its initial intensity was 1.4 km (4,935 ft.), and for blue light of wavelength 0.436, 1.2 km (1,937 ft.). The ratio 1.4/1.2 equals 1.17. Using the same colors, the ratio of the distances given in Table II for a light small particle fog is

$$\frac{363}{312} = 1.16$$

The measurements in the fog chamber show that fog penetrates red light is better than blue, and that the superiority of the red is greater than the work of Grunath and Hubbert indicates. However, the natural fogs through which these observers made their measurements were relatively much thinner than those used in the fog chamber, and the coefficients of absorption which they found were much smaller. Perfect agreement could not be expected.

**IT** IS CONSIDERED only the effect of the fog in absorbing radiation; the results shown above indicate that deep red light (near infrared) is more useful than light of other colors with shorter wave-lengths. But in selecting a light for use in fog three other factors must be considered:

1. The relative eye-visibility of different colors.
2. The effect of contrast between the lights observed and their respective backgrounds.
3. The position of the observer relative to the light sources.

In Fig. 5 (International Critical Tables, vol. 5, p. 437, 1929) is shown the relative visibility of the eye for monochromatic radiations (pure spectral colors). This figure shows that the normal eye is most sensitive to yellow-green light, and that the sensitivity of the eye falls off rapidly toward the end of the spectrum and becomes nearly black. The eye is approximately ten times more sensitive to the yellow-green light used in the navigation than to the red, and twenty-five times more sensitive than blue. This means that in order to have a red, yellow-green and blue source of light (corresponding respectively to the filters used) which would appear of equal brightness to the eye, the radiant energy of the red would have to be ten times greater than that of the yellow-green, while that of the blue would have to be twenty-five times greater. Perhaps this can be better illustrated in another way. Suppose we have three lights (beacons) red, yellow-green and blue, respectively, all of equal radiant energy. Assume that a certain fog of the yellow-green light is reduced to 0.1 per cent of its brightness in 280 ft., using the value given in Table II. If the relative visibility of the eye is taken into account, the brightness of the red light will be reduced to 1.0 per cent in 280 ft., while the brightness of the blue will be reduced to 0.1 per cent in 130 ft. of fog. Thus the yellow-green light will be visible at the greatest distance, the red next and the blue last. From this viewpoint the yellow-green is by far most useful.

The discussion in the last paragraph does not consider color. The relative distances to reduce the brightness to 0.1 per cent, 280 ft. for the yellow-green, 280 ft. for the red and 130 ft. for the blue, would hold only when the background is black. In daylight, the fog is

illuminated by diffused sunlight, so the beacon lights would be surrounded by a whitish haze. Very little is really known regarding the effects of such a luminous veil upon the visibility of lights. Further tests in the field will be made to determine the effects of contrast in daylight fog.

The foregoing discussion has been carried on assuming the source of light to be in the nature of a beacon, that is, the observer is in front of it trying to pick up the light. Lights to be used as leading lights on a plane require further considerations. The blinding effect of scattered light produced by the fog is very serious to the person using it to illuminate objects ahead. It has been generally assumed that the sharpness of light by fog is due to (1) a blocking-out of the radiant energy from the light beam by the fog particles and (2) by scattering of light. The first effect is independent of the wave-length. Scattering is dependent upon the wave-length of light and is greater for short wave-lengths than for long. In the formula previously given, the coefficient of absorption is equal to  $k = 1/\lambda^4$ , in which  $k$  is the blocking-out coefficient, independent of wave-length and  $\lambda$  is the coefficient of scattering. This is known as the "Rayleigh Inverse Fourth Power Law." The measurements indicate that the blue and green lights

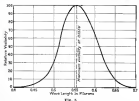


Fig. 5

are absorbed more than the red. This must be due to a greater scattering effect of the fog particles for the light waves of shorter colors. If this is true, a leading light with a red or orange filter would be far more effective, because there would be less scattered light to blur the reflected light from the objects illuminated. In making such a test, account must be taken of the effect of using a filter on the candle-power of the beam—the white light and red light *would have equal lines equally power.*

**THE** RESULTS reported in this note are not entirely satisfactory and are far from complete. The measurements should be repeated and, if possible, with greater precision. It is intended to try a spectro-photographic method. Furthermore, measurements with infrared and ultra-violet should be made under identical conditions as those with visible light, if a complete picture of the absorption of various energy by fog is to be obtained. This laboratory study is only an introduction to a complete investigation of the problem. Field tests in natural fogs with beacon lights and leading lights of various colors should be made as soon as practicable. The laboratory work will furnish a selective guide as to the colors that offer the greatest promise in value.

## TRANSPORT TERMINAL

### Maintenance



Working on a Bessie  
T-44 transport at Oak-  
land Airport, California.

By ERNEST W. FAIR

**W**HETHER an operator is maintaining a large airline using giant tri-engine planes or operating a short line with low powered machines, the maintenance of planes at the airline terminal or terminals is a subject of greatest importance to him.

Maintenance has made every an operator the well-known gift of sleepless nights not only because of its evident costliness, but because of the security of known procedures, nearly all of which has had to be augmented by such airframe or developed from contacts between operators.

In the morning operations an attempt will be made to bring most of the outstanding points of maintenance together, not only for students and future operators, but for those now actually engaged in the task of keeping planes fit.

How often shall a plane be completely overhauled? This is one of the first questions. Some airlines give every plane a minor overhaul each time they overhaul the engines; others have specific periods of time for complete check-ups and overhauls on engines and plane alike. Many lines require a daily inspection, either during the night, or immediately after the plane comes in from its daily run. These check-ups are recorded and even the slightest indication of trouble is attended to.

On the Bessie division of Universal Airlines, this daily inspection of planes is an iron-clad rule. The terminal staff of the Bessie division includes twenty men whose duty it is to inspect and repair planes after the

daily run. Bessie's record of a million miles flown without accident is largely due to this vigilance at the terminal. These planes fly from 200 to 300 miles per day rather than to chance one mechanic having to work too fast to complete his job, two mechanics are assigned to every plane between runs. This allows a much slower inspection. Following a complete check and servicing at a line plane, the job is inspected by a factory-trained chief mechanic. Responsibility for each plane is on the shoulders of this chief mechanic. He makes his report and final check-up on each plane and is responsible for any available.

It is entirely proper that such responsibility be centered on one man of the terminal force with sufficient training and experience to enable him to detect the slightest error in the other mechanic's inspection. It is only by such extreme care that accidents and forced landings can be avoided.

**O**NE transport line, on general, has following plans similar to the one used by Bessie. On the Stout Air Lines, a daily inspection of the planes is made and a service record is kept. All vital points about the engine and fuselage, wings, empennage, controls and undercarriage are checked and after recommendations by the operations manager have been carried out. On a single side the pilot makes a report of everything noticed in flight that should be altered or corrected. Southwest Air Post Express, Western Air Express and others also have careful inspection systems.

In most cases it has been found that the engines and their accessories should be given special inspection, naturally separate from the airframe and general inspection. On Stout and S.A.F.E., as well as a few others, this inspection is left to mechanics who must know the engines from hub to valve. These mechanics perform the servicing alone, after a preliminary inspection has been

made, and the report checked for accuracy. The job must almost always precede the final O.V. of the terminal himself.

With Staff written a flight engineer supervises both inspection and makes out the final report. This he takes responsibility for the entire plane and engine.

A desirable additional provision is a dual final inspection before the plane is ready. Pan-American Airways sends the engine for this final inspection with the sign of the passenger, while others prefer to perform the final inspection at the shops before bringing planes to the loading platform. On long lines such as T.A.E., Pan American, Western Air Express and Universal, a terminal has thorough inspection is made at each terminal after the plane has landed and before it takes off. At the present time much work is being done in the erection and equipping of intermediate terminals, and the larger airlines are formulating plans for even more such construction in order that planes stay at all times well on every point of the route to be as perfect operation as it is possible to make them.

Perhaps one of the points that is most easily overlooked in the preliminary design of these auxiliary terminals and how they are the matter of electric light and power provision which must always be secured from power station lines. There have been fully a half dozen cases where the lack of provision for such facilities at the beginning meant very sizable expenditures later. For the most part, three-bay shops with power lines at available, but some organizations have found that electric light and power must not only be given, but also be available, even though, their initial cost being the main point to consider. In most major shops, though their initial expense is somewhat high, operators have found that the use of electrical tools saves them considerable expense in the long run. For it generally saves time and labor, and makes the operator's work easier and in many cases less stress on mechanics or equipment.

The necessity for providing adequate fire-fighting equipment is almost too obvious to need mention, although some operators have neglected this important factor. Besides having fire extinguishers for bearing the terminal building, and for heating water and oil must also be included in all complete plans.

The resistance of some manufacturers of large transport planes that only one terminal in the location be used for maintenance work is thoroughly reasonable. S.A.F.E., Braniff, MacLachlan, Boeing and others require that all their terminal and inspectors have factory training at the plants they work on. All Braniff mechanics have had short periods of factory training which makes them thoroughly familiar with every part of the planes they work on, and permits them to turn out highly efficient jobs. S.A.F.E. does not allow a new employee, unless he is thoroughly familiar with the work from previous association, to step into line. He must serve for a training period in the shops until the chief mechanic is satisfied that the man understands what he has to do and how to do it.

IT HAS BECOME an almost universal practice to install reduction-of-fire hazard, convenience, and so, general, actual economy, although these rules are somewhat more, have proved to be the result. Great Lakes, Western Air Express, S.A.F.E. and numerous others have adopted them. Neither tools nor pumps are located in the buildings, but on roads and runways, aiding in servicing and relieving of auxiliary terminals. These lines

have found it advisable, however, to place such tools only to a hundred feet from every building other than the gas and oil houses, to not in multiple servicing of such is necessary.

The use of dolly, particularly with small planes not equipped with oil wheels, has been found efficacious on the majority of lines.

There has been a good deal of guess work in equipping terminals and auxiliary terminals with the proper tools. To formulate a list of tools and equipment necessary



Portable stand used in the heads of motor shafts or air shafts in line engines

would be to no use, for, for such needs very considerably. However, there are definite standards about which equipment can be grouped as preferred by the greater majority of lines.

For auxiliary terminals or shops, one or two benches are all that may be needed, with a few hand tools, a carpenter's vice and a small machine vice. Where metal planes are used, special riveting tools are of course necessary. Special equipment and tools for grinding valves and cleaning engines are absolutely essential.

Where one wants engines and tools, usually following orders in inspection check-up sheet, there are a definite number of small tools desirable. Items equipped with smaller ones of chain blocks with capacities from 100 to 2000 lb are not only inexpensive but highly desirable. When and after good tools have proved highly successful in most shops. The former is designed for general non-maintenance work to prefer the latter. Larger terminals should be equipped as are S.A.F.E. and Standard terminals with overhead tracks for chain mauls for ease and speed of service.

It has generally been found that tools made under motor tools standards are the most desirable, at least for complete engine overhauls. Torque brakes for measuring horsepower, tachometers, and oil pressure instruments will certainly prove well worth their expense in this use. Stands should be equipped with adjustable engine supports which can be set to accommodate any engine, if the air line uses a variety of planes and engines. Gas and oil feeding apparatus and measuring instruments should also be taken into consideration for major overhaul work. Special wrenches for each type of engine and a few mechanics' hand tools are necessary. In all shops, terminal or auxiliary, Galvanized steel pans for washing of engine parts in benzene during overhauls, pressure systems for use in such washing and other like accessories have proven their value in more than one instance.

Complete checking comes to be done without jigs for

checking of the ignition equipment of such engines. These can either be built in the shops or better still, prepared from manufacturers. Checking operation of the distributors and resetting them can be quickly accomplished through the arrangement of timing straps before they are assembled with the engines.

There is less and less tendency, and in fact very little with the major airlines, to send engines back to the factory for major overhauls as has been done in the past. With the training of mechanics in the factories and the availability of highly efficient tools, such operations is becoming more and more unnecessary. This recent decision saving is costs for any transport operator.

Tools and equipment lists are about as variable as the type of passengers the airline carries. The following list has been compiled after careful consideration of the average equipment used by several major airlines.

Carpenter's small tools and benches, double-ported shaper, jointer, feedstock jigs and benches, electric hand drills, steel box or beam, portable vacuum cleaner, popper super cables and tools, soldering iron heater and soldering equipment, hand vice bench tool, pipe hanger, blacksmith's large (small), power hacksaw, two-way builder levels, riveting equipment for metal planes, chain blocks and tracks, mechanics' small tools, benzene washing pans, pits and rod-replacement jigs and straightening tools, a compressed air system for cleaning parts with brush hose, small circular benches, screw-casting holes, engine tool stands, small circular saw (hand saws are also desirable too), wood planers wing jigs and benches, glue joint, sewing machine (for fabric covering), propeller balancing stand, sheet metal workers' tools, small sheet-metal bender, sheet metal corner, wire and cable proof holders, airplane welding set, 200-pound blacksmith's anvil, wheel repair stand, wing panel trailer, engine overhaul stand, special engine tools for each type, other press (small), ignition timing set-ups, valve timing tools, steam heating, hot exhaust, benzene pressure spray system for cleaning parts, gear

Checklist for engine overhaul used by Great Lakes Airlines, Inc.

polling clutches, pistons and rod ends, stationary oil cans, either fixed or pump.

A list to meet individual requirements must, of course, be worked out by the shop mechanic in charge at every terminal where servicing is done, but this list is given merely for purposes of suggestion and comparison. It may be pointed out, however, that in the experience of most transport operators maintenance costs are ultimately reduced in proportion to the completeness and efficiency of equipment, and that attempts to reduce first cost here are usually very poor economy.

The whole question of maintenance cost in one which must be worked out by each company for itself, and is one about which generalizations are not particularly valuable. Every operator knows that failure to keep planes and engines in perfect condition must eventually result in greater expense than saving in the cost of servicing.

Nevertheless, maintenance costs must not be proportionally constant. Certainly good records should be kept on how often overhauls of engines are necessary, and a regular schedule can easily be worked out which will keep equipment in perfect condition at minimum expense. The expense can be further reduced by so arranging the schedule that the shops at the terminal or terminal be kept more or less constantly busy, instead of having alternate periods of idleness and excess amounts of work on hand. The Braniff lines have taken this factor very successfully into consideration by being placed to the central shops at the conclusion of each run, then returning the delivery of planes for servicing at comparatively regular intervals.

In this as in other respects, operators will find that equipment involved in involving maintenance needs and preparing routine methods for meeting them will be easily repaid later. Efficient methods of developing service for transport planes are always expensive in the long run, from the point of view of actual expenditure as well as of safety.

The latest looking sheet for both passengers and engine

# Thirty Cent Protection FOR A MILLION DOLLAR SHIP

By L. C. PORTER

Engineering Department, Edison Lamp Works  
Harrison, N. J.

**L**IGHT'S GOLDEN JUBILEE brought to the attention of the World, the marvelous advance made by the lighting industry during the past 50 years. Never before has so much luxury been on display, or so many activities of our present regime been made possible,—in fact, dependent upon light.

Naturally we would expect that our latest form of transport, aviation, would to a large extent depend upon light. So it does. The thing that has made the air most successful is night flying. Night flying depends upon lighted airways and lighted airports. The air mail is largely responsible for the success of commercial aviation. A marvelous future is open to air transport. History shows that each new form of transport has developed faster than the present one. This is undeniably true of flying. In fact, aviation has developed so rapidly that the lighting has not kept pace with the developments in engines, ships, radio, etc.

True, advance has been made in the more evident needs of lighting for night flying. Field floodlights have been developed of new and novel design using 25 KW. of power. MAZDA lamps 10,000 watt are have been developed, and are in nightly use for lighting aviation fields. Even 30,000 watt lamps have been tried experimentally. The skies at night are paved by the shafts of 2,000,000 watt rotating aviation beacons located every 10 miles along our airways. These things were the most pressing needs,

and the most evident ones; therefore, naturally the first ones developed. Let us see, however, some of the things that have not been done.

Present practice is the result of the unprecedented growth of aviation. It has advanced so rapidly that new types of lighting equipment could hardly be devised and built fast enough to meet the new conditions as they arose. We have hardly made a start. Let us pause a moment and discuss some of the things to be solved for the future.

Not so very long ago, the day out of season of the Indian was quite a bore. The great transatlantic liner of today was absolutely beyond conception of the owner of such a cruise. There is no fundamental reason why the ship should not have a similar, or even greater growth. The sleek, single passenger planes of today will probably bear the same relation to those of the future that the cruise does to the transatlantic liner. We already have evidence of such development in the recent flight of the *Dornier* plane with 169 passengers and a capacity of 200.

Speeds of over 300 m.p.h. have been obtained. *Amazee* two plane passenger, each reaching 300 m.p.h. The top running speed would be 600 m.p.h. or 840 ft. in a single second. If these planes are flying after dark, the lives of at least two people and many thousands of dollars worth of material depends upon the pilot seeing each other's approach and avoiding collision. The navigation lights on these planes to-day are 21 sq. lamps,—the same lamp as used for marking lights on motor boats passing at 10 or 12 m.p.h. instead of 600. Isn't that ridiculous? We don't even know whether a pilot can see and interpret the meaning of the little 21 sq. lamp which, after projecting its light through the fog or green over glass



A beacon structure known in operation

of the navigation light, is reduced to about 4 or 5 sq. moving 600 m.p.h., and yet we are asking our lives on such equipment.

We have great druggists, state rock, offering practically no color contrast with the sky and the cloud background, ships nearly a thousand feet long moving at 80 or 90 m.p.h. and protected by a single set of running lights—the same tiny cy. lamps. It is nothing but good luck that has so far prevented these ships from being run into by some fast-moving plane. Think of it, a million dollar ship protected by navigation lights that cost about 20c. Would it not be common sense and good business to put adequate navigation lights on these ships, spending a few dollars, or even a few hundred dollars to adequately protect a million dollar investment and the lives of many people?

To-day we are using white lights for aviation beacons to guide the pilot along the airways, and to the landing field. A white light is used no matter whether the beacon is located in the middle of the prairies with no other light in the range of vision, or amid the myriads of other white lights such as signs, street lights, headlights, etc., in and around great cities. We have plenty of evidence and experimental data proving conclusively that under the worst conditions, a colored beacon even of much lower candlepower can be picked up farther away, and more definitely identified than a white beacon. This is due to color contrast, and yet we do not use colored airway beacons. Why?

We use the same type and size of beacon as our airports in our airways. Assume Tom, Dick, or Harry,—you or I,—approaching a city from which several airways radiate. Assume the weather slightly thick, and our gas supply low. It is essential that we reach the airport in the shortest possible time. How are we to know whether the beacon we are steering for is at the airport, or at an airway? Airports should have more powerful beacons than those on the airway—beacons which are entirely distinctive, giving a radically different type of indication from that given by airway beacons.

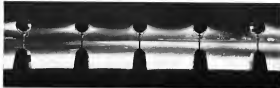
## Some Very Interesting Comments and Comparisons of Present Day Aeronautical Lighting Facilities

Flag protection is another problem which is far from solved. More attention is being given this problem than some of the others, yet there are certain rather simple and really indispensable things that we do not yet know. For example, nobody knows definitely whether or not a large area of fog lighted to a relatively low intensity can be seen farther than a small area lighted to very high intensity. In other words, in fog would a given amount of light be more effective if concentrated into a narrow and very powerful searchlight beam, or applied out through a large area of fog? Perhaps airports should have two types of beacons, one best suited for use in clear weather, and the other for thick weather.

In either case, how can the light be used to best advantage? We have plenty of data to show that if the present airway beacons rotating are turned a minute, and having a horizontal beam spread of about 12 deg. are stopped in their rotation with the beam pointed directly at an observer several miles away, the beacon appears to glow brighter and more brilliant; i.e., it becomes instantly more conspicuous and more effective. Evidently then the present flash period is not long enough to take advantage of the maximum response of the human eye. Just what is the relation between beam candlepower and flash period? We know that a quick flash will attract more attention when the observer is not looking directly toward the light source, while a slow one seems more conspicuous if looking directly at the beacon. Which is of more value in the pilot's? What combination of the two will give the maximum range to a beacon when observed from a fast moving plane? We don't know, and yet we are trying to see our beacons as far as possible, or to see them at all in such weather.

**L**ANDING beacons, consider some of the lighting problems on the airport at night. We mark the boundary of the field by a string of white lamps—directly the same size and type of lamp that is used for street lighting. In several places the boundary lights of an airport parallel a line of street lights. It is fully anyone who is not an experienced pilot, or a pilot with such a field, to go up a couple of thousand feet and tell which row of lights marks the boundary of the field and means a safe landing. The old and experienced pilot, yet, but we must anticipate the time when there will be as many and so great a variety of people in the air as now drive automobiles. It is for that class of flyer that we must plan our lighting—not for the thoroughly trained pilot of long experience.

Complete the lighting of our landing fields with any



From Airport, 1935, lighted by a bank of 1,000-Watt landing lights



the upper wings by five hinges each. They are operated by two rods to each section, the entire mechanism being housed within the wings. The windows extend along the outer half of the upper wing span, their total area being 100 sq ft. Hinges, jacks and other parts are equipped with ball bearings throughout.

At the nose of the fuselage, as far back as the rear wing hinges, is constructed of chrome molybdenum steel tubing. From the wing collars aft, the construction is of beaded square dead tubing. The side members of the fuselage have been held to a constant size, 2 1/2 in. square, for the entire length of the cabin. This is done to simplify the structure of the cabin interior, window frames and fitting strips.

Passage bracing is designed to give substantial window openings. The windows are "fixed" from air being supplied by individual adjustable ventilators located at each window. In addition, there are large air intakes at either side of the cabin to the rear. Heated air is supplied by stacks placed around the exhaust stacks of the engine, is fed into the cabin and carried along either side to the rear. The stove is constructed with a water pan so that when not in operation, the water in the registers functions as dead air cushions and thus entirely safe in ventilation.

The individual ventilators are manufactured continuously by the "Window Muffler Co." and bear the trade name "Aero-muff." They consist of a retractable scoop which, in operation, may be pulled out about 1/2 in. from the side of the plane, a bar in which the scoop and mechanism for operating it are hinged when retracted, and an operating lever for adjusting the scoop to any desired position. The scoop bearing rests on the air duct, the rear face being covered with an ornamental grille. The lever, for adjusting the scoop, is in the form of a vial, with a butterfly valve to the rear of the throat. The hot air duct is placed at the throat, but when the butterfly valve is opened allowing air to exhaust freely through the rear of the stove, the resultant reduction of pressure at the throat of the vial causes a vacuum of flow which draws the hot air into the scoop and then becomes exhausted for dead air.

The floor of the Boeing transport's cabin is built up of dural "T" beams making aluminum at fuselage section points, while the stringers are rounded "U" channel sections. These members are covered with corrugated dural, which in turn is covered with a sheet of flat dural at points of wear, such as the aisle. Each chair leg comes directly over one of the stringers. Chairs are rigidly attached to the floor by means of a special pin design, which may be removed, and the chairs may be readily removed, and, if desired, alternate rows may be made to face each other.

THE CABIN is divided into two compartments, separated by a door. The forward compartment, directly behind the pilot's cockpit, may be used to accommodate three passengers or 3,000 pounds of mail and express. The compartment is 6 ft. 6 in. high, 5 ft. 4 in. wide, and 4 ft. 2 in. long. Three doorways lead from this compartment; one to the pilot's cockpit, one to the main passenger cabin and a third to the lower wing section, which may be used for baggage. The main passenger cabin normally is constructed of aluminum and passenger carriers, this compartment is metal lined, while in places to be used for passenger transport operations exclusively, the walls and ceiling are finished with mahogany plywood to correspond with the main cabin.

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The main passenger cabin is 15 ft. 3 in. in length, and is the main width and height as the smaller baggage compartment. Seats, made of laminated cloth without upholstery, made of fabric and weighing 13 lb., are arranged in an aisle of three seats, with an aisle between the second and third seats from the left. Windows, 38 in. wide and 20 in. high, are conveniently located at either end of each row of seats. Smaller windows, 19 in. wide and 12 in. high, are placed at the rear of the cabin, one in the laundry and one in the main entrance door. All windows are equipped with non-shatterable glass.

The cabin is finished with highly polished Honduras mahogany plywood, which has a thick core of balsa wood for sound insulation. This sound proofing feature permits normal conversation among passengers while the plane is in flight. Individual electric lights are located by each seat. Altimeter, air speed indicator and clock are affixed to the forward wall of the cabin for the benefit of the passengers. The laundry is at the rear of the main cabin, it has an average height of 6 ft. 1 in., and covers an area approximately 2 ft. 6 in. wide and 4 ft. 6 in. long. The laundry is furnished with hot and cold running water, the hot water being kept at a temperature of 120 degrees F. and the cold water being heated in the three-gallon tank above the ceiling of the compartment.

A cloakroom, furnished with hangers, is located at the rear of the main entry way, and occupies a space 2 ft. 6 in. wide, 2 ft. 6 in. long, and 5 ft. 11 in. high. A stool at the rear of this compartment gives access to a space in which is placed mahogany equipment.

THE MAIN COCKPIT is located directly to the rear of the main engine fire wall, and its floor is raised 2 ft. 11 in. above the main cabin floor, thus providing a convenient 30 in. of clearance which may be used for baggage. This also provides ingress to the controls, wing and landing leading from the cockpit. The extensive window area in the cockpit are of non-shatterable glass, the front windows, 4 in. in thickness, are divided into two sections, the upper fully opened by a worm and wheel mechanism, the top half swinging upward and the lower half downward. The side windows may be cranked opened or downward to a fully opened position. Excellent visibility is thus provided in all types of weather. A double hatchway in the roof of the cockpit is made of green pyralis, for vision above, and being hinged along the center and hinged at the sides, it opens upward and out. This hatch provides access to a walkway on top of the fuselage, a walkway to the main cabin floor. The cockpit is metal lined up to the windows, and heat is provided from the hot air stove on the center engine exhaust stack.

Various instruments and controls are conveniently grouped on one large instrument board, which is built in three removable sections. Flight instruments are grouped on the left panel directly in front of the pilot's seat, and include the following: air speed indicator, rate of climb indicator, bank and turn indicator, and a large extra sensitive ball float indicator.

The compass is mounted behind the pilot, but is read through a mirror conveniently located above the instrument board. The control instrument panel includes engine instruments as follows: tachometer, oil pressure and temperature gauges and fuel gauges. The right panel carries the time of trip clock, electrical meters and light switches, with the exception of the landing lights, switches for which are located on the side of the pilot's

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adjustable seat. The instruments are indirectly lighted, and the intensity of the lighting may be varied by means of rheostats.

Dual wheel and column controls for ailerons and elevator are positively inter-connected, and rudder straps, adjustable to three positions, are provided for both pilots. Differential braking is provided through pedals on the pilot's rudder straps. Brake and flight control cables are of glycol extra flexible and ball bearing Muskrat gages are used throughout. Throttle and mixture controls are operated by rods, except when landing gear, in which case Amana rods are used.

The auxiliary adjusting mechanism is controlled by a large shaft mounted in roller bearings which carry three as well as radial loads. An adjusting turn is provided to carry the first roller bearing in such a way that all loads are transmitted directly, not being carried as bending or torsion.

ALL ENGINE CONTROLS, hand brake and landing light retracting controls are centrally located within easy reach of either pilot's seat, and are mounted in a sound special construction. Engine controls include a hand fuel pump, master ignition switch, ignition switch to each engine, main 3-way fuel valve, electric inertia starter controls, carburetor heat control, engine starter controls, engine primer pump and valves, and booster buttons. Pressure air management for main engine controls is controlled by a single master valve of the control stand, and a total of four pneumatic lines are carried with positive controls to the pilot and co-pilot.

The fuel-air leading gear of the Boeing transport is of the flexible type with two Boeing disc units for taking up the shock from each wheel. Wheels are, by 12 in. with tires of the same size are used. Wheels are equipped with roller bearings and brakes, which are 20 in. in diameter and carry 2 in. bands. All connections are effected with straight pins as no universal action is required in the flexible type gear.

A landing gear tread 18 ft. 2 in. The axle has forged lexanor fittings. The bearing ends of the axle are ground to 3/16 in. O. D. and no inner bearing race is required, while the main portion of the axle is made of 21 in. G. D. tubing. Both parts of the axle and the four disc units are made of chrome molybdenum steel tubing, and are heat treated to give a tensile strength of 180,000 pounds per sq. in. The drag struts are made from 2 1/2 in. O. D. tubing, formed to a streamlined section by drawing. The inner leg of the disc comes directly over a jack placed on the front axle, and the outer end of the disc extends along the leg which is used to release the spring load on the outer side when it becomes necessary to remove the outer side of the landing gear to changing a wheel or tire. Bolts are placed in such a way that the axle is held in place by the drag strut. All landing gear attachments are made directly to the spars of the lower engine section.

The 15 in. by 3 in. special steel alloy tail wheel is equipped with roller bearings and a solid rubber tire. It is mounted in a center fork, which can rotate through 160 degrees. The tail wheel shock is absorbed by a special Boeing shock absorber, and the whole is fused between the body and the rudder.

The main nacelle connections come directly over the wheel centers, and the structure is entirely of chrome molybdenum steel tubing, including the outer plane struts. The controls to the engine engines are carried out from the body through the leading edge of the lower wing.

and are readily accessible when the specially hinged landing edge is swung up out of the way. This outer inter-plane struts are of streamlined dead tubing. All lower struts in the wing cell are of a streamlined section, and the lift and landing wires are brought into transitions on the spar center line.

The nacelle engines are 29 ft. between centers. The nose engine is equipped with a two-blade metal propeller of special design and is 10 ft. in diameter, while each nacelle engine carries a 9 ft. 6 in. special three-blade metal propeller. The engines are series B Hornets, each of which develop 328 hp. at 3,600 r.p.m. They are located in the upper center section, standard equipment consists of two 165 gal. main tanks with a 70 gal. reserve tank, but provision has also been made for storing 800 gal. of fuel in two 250 gal. tanks. All tanks are made of 500 welded aluminum. Main fuel lines are 2 in. O. D. copper tubes, and provision is made for fueling all engines from any one or all tanks. Each engine is equipped with an engine-driven G-5 pump.

Oil is carried in welded aluminum tanks directly behind each engine, each of which is equipped with an emergency regulator. This is in the form of an oil regulator, which controls the adjustable main delivery pipes coming which must be removed for venting purposes is reached by means of special hosing with fasteners permitting easy and rapid removal.

The floor surfaces of the upperplane are made entirely of aluminum, as on recent Boeing airplanes, the covering being 610 Alclad. The rudder and elevator are of conventional welded steel tubular construction, fabric covered. The trailing edge of the rudder carries the tail light, which is of special design. The areas of the tail surfaces are as follows: fin, 14.8 sq. ft., rudder, 34.7 sq. ft., and elevator, 79.2 sq. ft. and 75 sq. ft.

The loading differences of the BO-A as an eighteen-passenger transport and as a twelve-passenger and multi-passenger carrier are as follows:

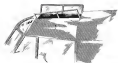
18-Passenger and Multi-Passenger	
18 Passengers at 170 lb.	3,060 lb.
Passenger at 25 lb. per passenger	450 lb.
Mail and express	3,510 lb.
Total Payload	4,010 lb.
12-Passenger Transport	
12 Passengers	2,040 lb.
Baggage	1,200 lb.
Total Payload	3,240 lb.

The difference in the tail pylons is due to additional equipment, such as chairs, on the sixteen-passenger version of the transport. To convert the BO-A as a twelve-passenger plane capable of carrying over 1,800 lb. of mail, it is necessary only to remove six chairs, which can be accomplished in 5 min. by one man.

### Specifications

Length overall	18 ft. 2 in.
Wing spread	44 ft. 2 in.
Wing tip wing span	44 ft. 2 in.
Lower wing span	14 ft. 10 in.
Wing chord	20 ft. 0 in.
Chord lower wing	10 ft. 0 in.
Wing section	Boeing Number 150
Wing area	1,200 sq. ft.
Wing lift (18 passengers)	35,000 lb.
Wing lift (12 passengers)	25,000 lb.
Wing load (18 passengers)	2,916 lb.
Wing load (12 passengers)	2,083 lb.
Power loading	17.8 hp. per sq. ft.

# DESIGN DETAILS OF THE *Boeing 80-A* Transport



The long double parallel fuselage providing access to cabin at 48 ft.-long bay doors placed symmetrically.



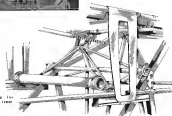
Internal details showing upper wing structure and upper cabin compartment members of fuselage above the floor. The corrugated surface is the skin.

Photograph showing the corrugated surface which contains approximately 10 miles. Note the corrugated surface.



Skin showing detail of wing construction.

Sketch showing the structure of the fuselage.



Photograph showing the corrugated surface which contains approximately 10 miles. Note the corrugated surface.



Close up of the lower wing showing main structure above the engine nacelle.



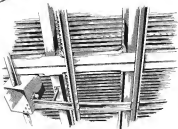
A portion of the corrugated fuselage structure. The side members are of standard channels in usually rectangular of riveted sections, fastened and involving material.



Close up of the tail section of the Boeing 80-A.



Sketch of details of the corrugated surface. The corrugated surface is made of corrugated metal in varying depths above one of the structure.

















# AIRPORTS AND AIRLINES



## Tests of Hangar Sprinklers Ended

### Official Report to Be Issued by Committee

WASHINGTON (A.C.)—The exhaustive series of tests of the value of various sprinkler systems in controlling hangar fires at all kinds was completed through last week's tests of the Standards hangar and came to a conclusion Friday, May 26. The official report of the hangar tests, which concluded the tests under the auspices of the National Board of Fire Underwriters and various government groups, is being completed and will be issued soon. This report will contain the official findings of each test, the various sprinkler systems, the volume of water used, temperatures under the roof of the hangar and comments of the official observers as to the conditions encountered.

It is expected that this report will be of great value either as a report and official investigation of the operation of sprinklers in hangar fires—a subject which has caused considerable controversy between fire underwriters and sprinkler manufacturers on one side and commercial and military aviation on the other. The latter has been loath to permit the damage to its aircraft, fearing, believing that sprinklers were unnecessary, or ineffective and is any case too expensive to install.

### Sprinklers Against Aircraft

Following official reports, the tests may be said to have demonstrated conclusively the following points:

1. That the sprinkler system is able to keep heat from building under the water but has failed on gasoline, but will continue to burn, of course, but without much further damage to aircraft or contents.
2. That under practically all conditions the hangar is not changed much but that only the conditions can cause as precipitated by large quantities of spilled gasoline, permitting rapid spread of fire before the water is turned on, in these present designs to this extent, the tests of the building.
3. That automatic pilots offer considerable preference to the modern structure.

The wooden hangar measured 66 x 30 x 20 ft. Under the roof were installed 100 sprinklers in accordance with the National Board of Fire Underwriters Association. The committee drew lots for portions of their tests under the roof. Each test was made in each test, no

## Air Ferries Plan Expansion

SAN FRANCISCO (A.C.)—Air Ferry, Ltd., of this city, plans to start service to Sacramento and Stockton, Calif., from San Francisco upon the arrival of Keystone-Lomax from the latter at SFO, May 1. The line now operates between San Francisco and Vallejo.

## New Mail Rates

### Based on Water Bill

WASHINGTON (A.C.)—President Hoover signed the Water bill on April 29 and May 5 the Post Office Department took the first action under its provisions. This was to issue certificates to C.A.M. routes 1-5, inclusive. The rates fixed in the certificate run until December 31 while the certificate themselves run until April 5, 1956. The routes and operations involved are as follows: Boston-New York, Cleveland-Chicago-St. Louis, Sacramento-Chicago, M.A.T.; Salt Lake City-Los Angeles, W.A.R.; Salt Lake City-Provo, Utah, Vermont.

Under the arrangement provided for in the bill, that the rates shall be based on water and mileage rather than on per mile, the new rates of payment have been arrived at on the basis of the bill, to be in the same ratio as the rates for the above routes, together with the variation for extra compensation in the case of night flying, mountain flying and flying in inclement weather on the various routes, are as follows:

No. 1—\$1.00, No. 2—\$1.00, No. 3—\$1.00, No. 4—\$1.00, No. 5—\$1.00, No. 6—\$1.00, No. 7—\$1.00, No. 8—\$1.00, No. 9—\$1.00, No. 10—\$1.00, No. 11—\$1.00, No. 12—\$1.00, No. 13—\$1.00, No. 14—\$1.00, No. 15—\$1.00, No. 16—\$1.00, No. 17—\$1.00, No. 18—\$1.00, No. 19—\$1.00, No. 20—\$1.00, No. 21—\$1.00, No. 22—\$1.00, No. 23—\$1.00, No. 24—\$1.00, No. 25—\$1.00, No. 26—\$1.00, No. 27—\$1.00, No. 28—\$1.00, No. 29—\$1.00, No. 30—\$1.00, No. 31—\$1.00, No. 32—\$1.00, No. 33—\$1.00, No. 34—\$1.00, No. 35—\$1.00, No. 36—\$1.00, No. 37—\$1.00, No. 38—\$1.00, No. 39—\$1.00, No. 40—\$1.00, No. 41—\$1.00, No. 42—\$1.00, No. 43—\$1.00, No. 44—\$1.00, No. 45—\$1.00, No. 46—\$1.00, No. 47—\$1.00, No. 48—\$1.00, No. 49—\$1.00, No. 50—\$1.00, No. 51—\$1.00, No. 52—\$1.00, No. 53—\$1.00, No. 54—\$1.00, No. 55—\$1.00, No. 56—\$1.00, No. 57—\$1.00, No. 58—\$1.00, No. 59—\$1.00, No. 60—\$1.00, No. 61—\$1.00, No. 62—\$1.00, No. 63—\$1.00, No. 64—\$1.00, No. 65—\$1.00, No. 66—\$1.00, No. 67—\$1.00, No. 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## SIDE SLIPS

By  
Robert R. Gibson

**L**ATELY there seems to be a regular flood of magazines on the market specializing in air stories. As they are sure to be popular with the younger generation and are profusely illustrated we think the Department of Commerce had better get busy and pass regulations prohibiting most of the stories and manuscripts pictured therein. One glaring and cover we saw recently por-

Mr. FHE of Toledo, Ohio, speaks up on our side in the discussion of the astounding deaths that happen aeronautically in California. He encloses a clipping about a parachute jumper from the Los Angeles Express, calling our attention to the following:

"The highest speed that a human body can reach is approximately 400 m.p.h.," Hunter said. "On my record jump I was traveling 354 miles per hour when I exited the coil."

The only explanation we can offer, Mr. P.H., is that in California the parachute jumpers must be fitted with self-storing motors and do their work in full throttle drive.

Mr. W.S.E. of Od City, Pa., writes in to say that in view of our recent exposure of aeronautical conditions in California, he was not surprised to receive a telegram from a friend out there talking about the development of a new "radical" engine.

Mr. H.P. of New York detects signs of air-mindedness on the society page of the New York Evening Post in a recent issue:

"Dr. Eckener came from his home in Germany especially for the presentation of the medal. He was accompanied by Frau Eckener and by three sons, Hans, Kurt, Eckener. The lad made the vigorous salute with his father and was considerable fun for himself by running out on the streets to wave a broken silver."

You can imagine the predicament—meanwhile the flight was entirely without lateral control!

Mr. W.D.W. of Los Angeles, Cal., has loaned us a choice bit from his very much prized collection of "but" correspondence or, shall we say, "lighter-than-air-minded" correspondence.

"Dear Sir—I would like to buy an airplane will you tell me the address of firms where I can have one made like I want I would like to ask Mr. Lindbergh (Col Charles A. Lindbergh) about a part I want put in, can you tell me his address or not there please tell me where I can write him

"Dear Sir—Undoubtedly you are not aware of the fact that Colonel Lindbergh is a very busy man and cannot possibly give any of his time and attention to talking over various people's ideas of aviation appliances, of which there are thousands in this country. I would suggest that you subscribe to one of the trade magazines and from their columns receive the information you need regarding the purchase of a plane. Some of the magazines also have questions and answers columns which you can peruse at

"Dear E - I'm glad your last letter was glad to hear from you and of course I know Old Lindeburg was a very busy person, but he would not be very busy if he saw ever people like you would be. I haven't it much right to write to him as you have to talk to him, I have never seen him even, and I have some important business I wanted to write to him about you could have been kind enough to give me the address and if he is too busy to now, it would be all right with you. And I didn't think I had to tell you that I was glad to see him or that you had met each other the only ones to see you write to him."

"Dear Sir—I am sorry that you left this my second letter was sent. I certainly didn't mean to be curt, nor to hurt your feelings, but merely to try to give you the facts concerning Colonel Matthews. All I can tell you is that you would not feel disappointed if you received no reply to your communication which you ought address to him. I believe a letter addressed to him to care of T.A. Matthews, Glendale, Calif., might have a chance of reaching him while he is in Southern California. You are all wrong when you imply that just such rich people are the only ones that can

We think Mr. WDM would have saved a lot of trouble by simply telling the professor to go ahead and put his gadget in the airplane he proposes to buy. No harm could come of it, for like all other gadgets, it would either loose and fall off in two or three hours' flying.

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CARBURETORS

are used as standard equipment

... *by* ...

Allison Engine Corp.  
 Allison Engineering Co.  
 American Gypsum Bag Co.  
 Anshutz, Middlesex Co.  
 Conant Paper Corp.  
 Continental Motors Corp.  
 Corbin Arms & Mach. Co.  
 Corliss Engine Co.  
 Cresser Aircraft Co., Stator Corp.  
 Lombard Aircraft Co.  
 (formerly Vello Motors Corp.)  
 LeBlond Aircraft Engine Co.  
 Light Hts. and Foundry Co.  
 Loringham Motor  
 (formerly LeBlond Manufacturing Co.)  
 Motor Machine Int.  
 Whiting Aero. Engine Corp.  
 New Department  
 Pratt & Whitney Aircraft  
 G. E. Sockley Corp.  
 War Dept., War Corps  
 Warner Aircraft Corp.  
 Warner Aircraft Corp.

**STROMBERG**  
growing with aviation

Years ago when aviation was in the experimental stage Strohberg was experimenting, too, with an aircraft carburetor. One that would be dependable, light. That would supply the proper fuel mixture to the engine at all speeds, in all positions—efficiently and economically.

Such a carburetor was developed. The difficulties of propeller blast and upside down flying were overcome. A dependable, durable,

economical carburetor was designed and built.

The aviation world quickly recognized the remarkably fine performance of Stromberg carburetors. With the result that over 90% of American aircraft flying today is Stromberg equipped. And—as aviation grows, and new planes and new engines are developed—inevitably builders turn to Stromberg for the solution of their carburetor problems.

BENDIX STROMBERG CARBURETOR COMPANY

Division of Reader-Driven Economics

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# Micarta

## Control-wire Pulleys

...with BALL BEARINGS



Ball bearing Micarta control-wire pulleys.

**U**NEXCELLED for strength, durability and low friction losses, these Micarta pulleys are equipped with ball bearings having dustproof shields. The bearings are packed with grease before assembly and, therefore, require no further lubrication during the life of the pulley. The only precaution necessary in their use is to see that they are not exposed to dust from the slipstream and dirt from the landing gear.

Micarta pulleys may also be obtained with graphite bearings. They are light in weight, strong, and will not warp, split, splinter, or develop flat spots.

Other Micarta aviation products include fairleads, hinge bearings, propellers, and cabin lining.

For complete information, write to the nearest Westinghouse sales office.

*Service, prompt and efficient, by a coast-to-coast chain of well-equipped shops*

# Westinghouse



## PITCAIRN SPORT MAILWING

Three place (two passengers and pilot), dual control. Top speed 147 m.p.h. Cruising speed 125 m.p.h. Wright Whirlwind J-6 225 H.P. Engine. All night flying instruments. Price by survey factory, \$6000.

## On Time

On a quick call to business at some distant point... with a late start to join your friends at play a hundred miles or more away, your Pitcairn Sport Mailwing will take you and bring you back on time. Will carry you in comfort and give you so keen a sense of pleasure in the flight itself that the value from your work or relaxation is heightened beyond measure.

The Pitcairn Sport Mailwing, sister ship to the veteran Mailwing mail plane, shows its heritage: six million air miles flown

by day and night, down in furl or bad weather... setting an amazing record of swift, true flying where "on time" is the essential MUST.

Pitcairn owners from New York to California chose their Sport Mailwing first perhaps for its soundness, its staunch dependability; and then of course for the truly wonderful degree of inherent stability, another happy heritage from the mail ship... but then certainly also for the clean beauty of its line, its great comfort and its rich finish.

**PITCAIRN AIRCRAFT, INC.**  
PITCAIRN FIELD + WILLOW GROVE + PENNSYLVANIA

SPORT > > > BUSINESS > > > AIR MAIL

*This is one of a series of advertisements directed originally to advertising men in an effort to make industrial advertising more profitable to buyer and seller. It is printed in glass paper as an indication to readers that McGraw-Hill Publishing Company uses advertising effectiveness as well as editorial quality.*

## Is your copy keeping step with your salesmen?

**A**n eastern manufacturer selling a product for general industrial use has advertised consistently in six McGraw-Hill publications. His sales year after year have been so satisfactory that he has readily renewed his advertising contracts.

The product is staple—one of those prosaic things that make copy writers age prematurely. A new competitive situation came up last fall that made

the copy obsolete. The advertising writer left his copy desk and turned salesman for a while. He returned with a sharpened pencil and a new viewpoint.

The new copy has been running now for several months. No change in advertising schedule! No change in sales policy! No change in product design or service! Nothing has been changed except the copy, which has become more sales-like and more humanly interesting.

**N**OW comes the president's report on sales for the first quarter. Does it not show that it pays to scrutinize copy as well as the mediums that give it voice?

### THE REPORT\*

I am inclined to believe that the new type of advertising is getting the results we had hoped for. In fact it is coming much better than we had reason to expect. We are very busy in the plant as the present time and our sales for the first quarter are running 35% higher than last year, which is quite a jump. The particular class of work we were after in this advertising has necessitated our practically doubling the machinery in this department and it is now operating on a 24-hour schedule.

*\*Extract from a personal letter covering annual subjects*

## McGraw-Hill PUBLICATIONS

New York Chicago Cleveland Detroit Philadelphia London St. Louis  
Greenville San Francisco Boston Portland

## HELP YOURSELF TO EXPERIENCE



Robertson's Personnel Headed up a Fast-Market, one-day survey of the Birmingham, Texas, Robertson Hangar completed in 14 days for the Post-American line.

and ask what specific experience we have had with that particular problem. You can have our recommendations without charge and without obligation. It has been the good fortune of the Robertson engineers to be in an unexampled position to accumulate actual experience for years in the field of hangar construction all over the world...and if their experience can help prevent the same mistakes happening again and again, the Robertson Company feels it owes that to the aviation industry.

**ROBERTSON**  
*shares its*  
**HANGAR BUILDING**  
*experience*

There is no formality about this. If there is anything you want to know, just write.

**R. H. ROBERTSON COMPANY**  
Pittsburgh, Penna.

**I**f you run into some knotty problems involving aviation buildings, remember that the engineers of the R. H. Robertson Company have been running into the problems peculiar to the aviation industry for almost 15 years...and you can help yourself to their experience.

If you would like someone who is familiar with this new branch of construction to check over your plans...just to make sure...we will be glad to do it.

If there are some special angles of the work...such as the daylighting of hangars, or the removal of motor exhaust, or the special aspects of hangar roof construction, or the prevention of corrosion in "light construction" buildings...merely write

**ROBERTSON**

WORLD WIDE HANGAR BUILDING

**EXPERIENCE**

*(This is one of a series of advertisements directed originally to advertising men in an effort to make industrial advertising more profitable to buyers and seller. It is printed in three parts as an indication to readers that McGraw-Hill publishing standards mean advertising effectiveness as well as editorial quality.)*

## Of course, this doesn't happen every day

Recently in Erie, Pa., a McGraw-Hill circulation man visited a plant to get subscriptions and got the surprise of his life. The story may be interesting to those advertising men, who, in selecting advertising mediums, consider not only reader interest but how circulation is built.

Frankly, this Erie plant was not covered as a unit\* by certain McGraw-Hill publications. The circulation man was there to find out why. In keeping with McGraw-Hill policy he called at the front office, learned the plant set-up and obtained permission to interview key men.

When, finally, he reported back to the front office the surprise came. Unknown to him an executive had watched him work. This executive greeted him somewhat like this:

**"S**O this is the way McGraw-Hill builds circulation! It interests me because you see we are advertising in your *Engineering News-Record*. We are now going after some mining business and your demonstration here convinces me that your *Coal Age* is a good place for us to advertise."

McGraw-Hill circulation headquarters in New York will gladly explain its principles and practices of circulation building to those who are interested.

## McGraw-Hill Publications

New York   Chicago   Cleveland   Detroit   Philadelphia   St. Louis  
Greenwich   San Francisco   Boston   London

\*Our coverage is drawn from McGraw-Hill publications. It avoids overlap by the big area of each department or function and the right publication.



## Our wide experience

*in the field of*

## AUTOMOTIVE ENGINES

*makes us a  
most practical source  
for*

## AIRPLANE SPRINGS

*on a production or  
experimental basis*

*Two Plants for Spring Service*

**COOK SPRING CO. DIVISION**  
OF BARNES-GIBSON - RAYMOND INC.  
ANN ARBOR, MICHIGAN  
DETROIT DIVISION 4401 MICHIGAN AVE., DETROIT



## Where the factor of safety is all important . . . .

Through Death Valley, across the Bad Lands, the Rockies, or scorching desert sands, the reliability of Zapon products continues supreme. Since the beginning of aviation they have contributed largely to an all important factor of safety. In

Clark Nutcase, Aeroplane Dopes  
Sears, Parnes, Aeroplane Dopes  
Clark Nutcase, Aeroplane Dopes

the element of safety is constantly assured by the most exacting series of continuous laboratory tests, each step vitally essential to maintaining not only the highest standard of Zapon quality but also absolute safety in the air.

Also Timmers, Lacquer, Easels  
and Lacquer Frames

*It is the age of color, even for the plane and as long as we have the modern design, Zapon Color for interior upholstery lends an extra luxurious finish to the dash and gear. Redwood in color, asbestos in texture, as durability is such as to last and wear and wear.*

**THE ZAPON COMPANY**  
STAMFORD, CONN.













## "THE WASP" A FAMOUS ENGINE WITH THE FAMOUS G-E SUPERCHARGER



The famous General Electric centrifugal-type supercharger is built into every "Wasp" engine. It enables the Pratt & Whitney Aircraft Company to obtain in this engine greater horsepower per pound of weight through improved vaporization of the fuel as well as increased pressure at the intake passages. In contributing to the performance of famous engines, the General Electric supercharger is having an important part in the progress of aeronautics. Your interest in General Electric products is invited. Write us.

GENERAL ELECTRIC CO., SCHENECTADY, N. Y.



31-40  
**GENERAL  
ELECTRIC**  
AERONAUTIC EQUIPMENT

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## Now SCINTILLA flies with Boeing from Chicago to the coast

From Chicago to San Francisco—in 20 hours—by air. That is the new passenger, mail and express service inaugurated by the Boeing System with its big planes, which carry eighteen passengers and their baggage at the equivalent weight in passengers and mail.

Three 525 horsepower Pratt and Whitney Hornet engines provide power and speed. Two Scintilla Air craft Magneto on each engine insure dependable ignition for this fast 2800 mile trip.

Scintilla Aircraft Magneto are obtainable for engines of from 1 to 18 cylinders. They are standard equipment on the majority of modern American aeronautical engines.

**SCINTILLA MAGNETO CO. Inc.**  
SIDNEY — NEW YORK  
Exclusive in the U.S. Army and Navy  
(Division of Franklin Aviation Corporation)



The Scintilla Magneto is a precision-engineered, maintenance-free, reliable unit.

**DEPENDABILITY  
SIMPLICITY  
ACCESSIBILITY**



## Taking its Place IN THE SKY...

"A-W-G" Armor-Lite has earned its place in the sky by right of superior service.

"A-W-G" Armor-Lite scatter-proof glass is a laminated glass of exceptionally high quality. It provides positive protection against the hazard of flying glass.

For all aircraft, specify "A-W-G" Armor-Lite, Scatter-Proof, Laminated Glass. It is available in a wide range of sizes, thicknesses and weights, from heavy Bullet-Proof for tanks to Featherweight designed especially for the aviation industry...

Write for booklet... Address...

**ARMOR-LITE**  
A-W-G CO.

The following shows glass as added in the corner of all products "A-W-G" Armor-Lite. Look for it. It is your protection against substitution.

### AMERICAN WINDOW GLASS CO.

World's Largest Producers of Window Glass  
PITTSBURGH, PA.

AVIATION  
May 26, 1930



## FLYING SCHOOLS FLYING CLUBS— Both Hail the D. H. MOTH

Sturdy for hard weeks and years of training use—light and easily maneuverable for the sport uses of flying clubs—these are the twin possessions of the D. H. Moth that make it one of the most popular light planes.

Flying school operators everywhere praise the Moth, and their words have the weight of experience. Available among these strongest of approbations is that recently received from Reginald L. Moth, General Manager of Union Flying Service, Inc., of Ukiah, N. Y.

"During the late fall and winter months, when flying conditions here are at their worst, we trained many students for private pilot's license. Their average stud time was 9½ hours. The students' proficiency in all stages of training was marvellous and their confidence in the Moth universal. From a commercial operator's point of view, having solved quite a number of students in various types of planes, I know that the anxiety that often grows while watching a student solo is practically eliminated when the Moth is used."

"The Moth stands up well in training. Owing to its excellent stability, slow landing speed and rugged undercarriage, we have put in 230 hours of student work with our Moth and have not replaced a single part."

"It is interesting to note that during the first week of January, after eighteen inches of snow had fallen and our field was passed up by the mail pilot, the Moth was taken out and flown with wheel landing gear. It took off and landed without any trouble."



The sturdiness of the Moth and its reserve of power would be credit to a much heavier and more expensive ship. Yet its trimness and easy maneuverability are such that it has become a favorite with flying clubs throughout the world. A large portion of the membership of these clubs is made up of newly licensed pilots who find the stability and simplicity of the Moth precisely to their liking.

The flying club movement is progressing rapidly and the Moth's acceptance here is a matter of first choice.

The speed of the Moth is 102 m. p. h., allowing a quick take-off and rapid climb. Equipped with slotted wings it is practically impossible to put the Moth into a spin and it can be landed very slowly.

Price \$3,940

Wing Slot \$240 Additional

For details of club ownership plan and complete information on the Moth, address Dept. A-75

**MOTH AIRCRAFT CORPORATION**  
Division of CURTISS-WRIGHT  
27 West 57th Street, New York

FACTORIES:  
St. Louis, Mo.  
Wichita, Kans.

Buffalo, N. Y.  
Garden City, N. Y.

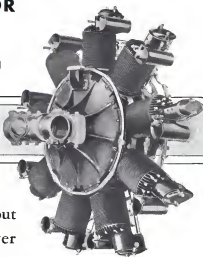
Boston, Pa.  
Baltimore, Md.

# D.H. Gipsy Moth

# ECLIPSE

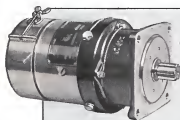
**STARTER and GENERATOR**  
**adopted**  
**as starting equipment on**

*The new*  
**Packard-Diesel**



That Packard—in bringing out this new and revolutionary power unit—should select the Eclipse Starter and Generator is further evidence of the way Eclipse keeps pace with and contributes to aviation progress.

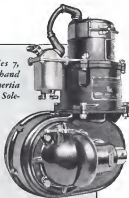
Our engineers are at the call of all manufacturers with special problems.



*Eclipse Generator,  
Type G-3, Engine  
driven type, with  
control box.*



*Eclipse, Series 7,  
Combination hand  
and Electric Inertia  
Starter, with Solenoid Switch.*



**ECLIPSE AVIATION CORPORATION**

**East Orange, New Jersey**

(Division of Bendix Aviation Corporation)